

# The language of communication in English classrooms in the Czech Republic: Mixing languages<sup>1</sup>

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**Abstract:** The paper deals with classroom communication. More specifically, it focuses on issues connected with the usage of English as the target language and Czech as the mother tongue in lessons of English as a foreign language in primary and lower-secondary schools in the Czech Republic. 89 English lessons were analysed and the proportion between English and Czech used in the sample lessons was established in order to show how the two languages are mixed in the lessons. The analysis of the number of words uttered in the lessons showed that teachers used Czech more than English but students said more English words than Czech words. When operationalized in terms of time, the use of language was equally balanced between the target language and the mother tongue. Another perspective described in the paper is one of opportunities that the teacher creates for the students to practice different language skills. Great differences in using the mother tongue and the target language were found between individual teachers, which is in line with the findings of a number of similar research studies. Towards the end of the paper, five typical situations of mixing languages are briefly presented.

**Keywords:** language mixing, code switching, foreign language teaching, English as a foreign language, classroom interaction, communication in foreign language classrooms

This paper focuses on the phenomenon of communication in the specific context of foreign language classroom. For many teachers, communication between the teacher and his or her students as well as communication between students is the single most important tool by means of which the learners acquire a foreign language.

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At the same time, communication as it takes place during foreign language lessons in schools differs in many aspects from both communication during instruction in other school subjects and genuine communication outside school. As opposed to communication in other school subjects, the real interest of the teacher as well as the students in a foreign language classroom very often focuses on the form rather than on the content of communication. As opposed to genuine communication, the purpose of which is transmitting information, communication in the classroom very often lacks what is called the information gap (Doughty & Pica, 1986) between the communicants and often has other purposes (e.g. constructing a shared understanding of an abstract concept, unveiling a cognitive conflict). In order to distinguish these two purposes and the way they are reflected in classroom communication, Kramsch (1987, p. 18) refers to *instructional discourse* and *natural discourse*. In somewhat similar line of thinking, Stern (1983, p. 402) uses the term *code-communication dilemma* to refer to “the fact that it is hard, if not impossible, for an individual to pay attention to linguistic forms, the language as a code, and simultaneously to communicate in that code.”

## **1 Mixing languages outside and inside the foreign language classroom: language mixing, code switching, code mixing**

In multilingual societies, switching from one language to another during speaking is a fairly common phenomenon through which one displays social status, includes a new listener in a group or excludes someone who might be listening uninvited. It can happen purposefully as well as unconsciously, i.e. when the speaker wishes to express joy, irritation, irony or when they are upset, tired or otherwise distracted (Crystal, 2007, p. 414).

In a monolingual society, on the other hand, the phenomenon is rarely to be observed outside a foreign language classroom. There, the term *code switching* refers to situations in which the speaker (be it a teacher or a student) mixes the two languages of the classroom (the mother tongue and the target language). Stern (1983, pp. 401–402) referred to *the L1-L2 connection* when he discussed “the disparity between the inevitable dominance in the mind of the learner of the first language and other languages previously learnt, and the inadequacy of the learner’s knowledge of the new language.” From the

same perspective, the author distinguished *crosslingual* teaching techniques where the students' mother tongue is used as "a frame of reference" as opposed to *intralingual* teaching techniques as those that "remain entirely within the second language" (Stern, 1983, p. 505).

The term *code-mixing* is used by some researchers to refer to "intrasentential code-switching" that involves going from one language to another within one sentence (Sridhar & Sridhar, 1980) as opposed to "intersentential code-switching", which refers to instances when a new sentence might begin in a different language.

In the classroom setting, Üstünel & Seedhouse (2005, p. 303) distinguish *teacher-initiated* code-switching (in instances when the teacher him/herself switches from one language to another) and *teacher-induced* code-switching (in instances when the teacher uses one language to encourage the pupils' response in the other language).

Looking at why teachers use the students' mother tongue in foreign language classrooms, Ferguson (2003; cited in Üstünel & Seedhouse, 2005) found three categories of reasons: (a) to help pupils understand the subject matter, (b) to motivate, discipline, praise and redirect attention, and (c) to develop and maintain positive atmosphere. Littlewood and Yu (2011) also distinguish three categories of reasons: (a) to establish constructive social relationships, (b) to communicate complex meanings to ensure understanding and/or save time, and (c) to maintain control over the classroom environment. A more systematic view is offered by Pennington (1995, cited in Littlewood & Yu, 2011, p. 70), who distinguishes *compensatory use* for situations when teachers use the mother tongue to respond to a perceived problem, and *strategic use* when using the mother tongue serves a pedagogical purpose.

Looking at why students use their mother tongue in foreign language classrooms, Swain and Lapkin (2000) distinguished three main purposes: to move the task along (sequencing, developing understanding), to focus attention (searching vocabulary, focusing on form), and to interact with other pupils (disagreeing).

## **2 Recent research on mixing languages in foreign language classrooms**

Research on language mixing (including code-switching and code-mixing) in foreign language classroom has been extensive and has helped accumulate findings from various contexts. Although the majority of studies focused on English as a foreign language (in classrooms all over the world), there have been many studies that were concentrated on teaching other foreign languages: French, German, Swedish, Japanese, Korean and others.

A common denominator for many of these studies is the conclusion that while the prevailing methodologies of foreign language teaching suggest that maximal use should be made of the target language during instruction, the reality of foreign language teaching makes (often extensive) use of the students' mother tongue (see Littlewood & Yu, 2011). This has been shown to be true in many different foreign-language-teaching contexts.

Turnbull (2001, reported in Littlewood & Yu, 2011, p. 67) analysed lessons of French as a second language in Canadian schools and found that English (the students' mother tongue) ranged from 28% to 77%.

Lehti-Eklund (2012) analysed a lesson of Swedish as a foreign language taught at an upper-secondary school in southern Finland. Looking at two different activities, she looked at how five pairs of students used their mother tongue (Finnish) in repair sequences (when interaction problems occurred during peer interaction in the target language (Swedish). She describes four instances of code-switching: code-switching in other-initiated self-repair of problems in understanding, code-switching in candidate understanding, code-switching in repair of problems produced by keeping up with the agenda and code-switching to deal with problems evoked by the text in the surroundings.

Üstünel & Seedhouse (2005) used a conversation-analysis perspective to analyse instances of code-switching during interactions in lessons of English as a foreign language at a Turkish university. They identified 12 pedagogical functions of teacher-initiated code-switching: dealing with procedural trouble, dealing with classroom discipline, expressing social identity, giving an equivalent in the mother tongue, translating into the mother tongue, dealing with a lack of response in the target language, providing a prompt for the use of the target language, eliciting a translation into the mother tongue,

giving feedback, checking comprehension in the target language, providing metalanguage information, giving encouragement to participate. Using the concept of preference (as used in conversation analysis to mean affiliation<sup>2</sup>), they came to the following conclusion:

It is not the case that the L2 [the target language] is always the preferred (in the conversation-analysis sense) language in L2 classrooms. Rather, the preferred language for learners to use is the one which aligns them with the teacher's pedagogical focus at that particular stage in the unfolding sequence. (Üstünel & Seedhouse, 2005, p. 321)

Studies like those mentioned above use lesson observation as a research method in order to find out which languages are used in the classroom. There are also researchers who are concerned with the questions of deliberate choice and preference on the part of teachers. To analyse these, questionnaires are usually used, which allows the linking of language use to, for instance, teacher beliefs about the purpose of the programme (Crawford, 2004).

In the Czech context, research studies on communication in foreign language classrooms are scarce. This is all the more frustrating as the processes of foreign language teaching and learning may differ from those in other cultural contexts (e.g. outside of what once was the Eastern bloc). Betáková discusses insufficient communicative competence of some Czech teachers as one particular issue:

...some teachers even have problems forming the basic language structures they teach. They can explain how to form them but they are not able to use them naturally in speech. That is why they conduct the lesson in their mother tongue and the learners have no chance to explore how the particular structure is used in everyday speech. In such a case, the teachers concentrate solely on the structures regardless of their meaning as they themselves have very little experience with contexts in which the structure is used. (Betáková, 2010, s. 49–50)

We believe that further analyses of the phenomenon of *language mixing* are the necessary first step in turning research attention to classroom situations that involve *language switching* (e.g. utterances that begin in one language

<sup>2</sup> "Actions which are characteristically performed straightforwardly and without delay are termed 'preferred' actions, while those which are delayed, qualified and accounted for are termed 'dispreferred'. To avoid any confusion, it should be asserted immediately that these terms are not intended in any way to refer to the private desires, or psychological proclivities of speakers." (Heritage, 1984, p. 268)

and end in the other, words from one language contaminate an utterance in the other, the languages are switched on the border of lesson segments). Such analyses may shed more light on the role that the mother tongue plays in the teaching and learning of foreign languages.

### 3 Method

In this paper, we summarise a number of findings that were accumulated within a larger video-study-based research project (formerly referred to as the *CPV Video Study*, see Najvar, Najvarová, & Janík, 2009). As part of that project, 89 lessons of English as a foreign language were videotaped and analysed by the Institute for Research in School Education of the Faculty of Education, Masaryk University.

The present findings draw on a corpus that includes the transcripts of 10 primary-school lessons (5<sup>th</sup> grade) and 79 lower-secondary lessons (7<sup>th</sup> and 8<sup>th</sup> grade) videotaped in randomly selected schools in the South Moravia region and the South Moravia, Zlín and Olomouc regions, respectively. The sole reason for choosing these particular three regions was their geographical proximity to the research team headquarters. In total, 30 teachers participated (28 women, 2 men).

Employing experience obtained from the TIMSS and IPN video studies (Jacobs et al., 2003; Seidel, Prenzel, & Kobarg, 2005), the lessons were taped using the standardized two camera procedure. Video recordings were transcribed using Videograph software (Rimmele, 2002) following standardized procedures (Seidel, Prenzel, & Kobarg, 2005).

For the analyses of uttered words, words were simply counted as found in the transcripts of videotaped lessons (word-count procedure). For the analyses of *talking time* and *language skills and the mother tongue*, time coding was used with 10 second interval as the unit of coding.

All of the presented analyses helped to uncover to what degree and/or in what kind of classroom situations the students' mother tongue was used. However, it should be noted that originally, the analyses were realised with different aims and their specialised findings were reported elsewhere (Najvarová & Najvar, 2009; Najvar & Najvarová, 2010; Šebestová, Najvar, & Janík, 2011). For the purposes of this paper, the results of the original analyses were reviewed and summarised within a new explanatory framework (above). In this sense the paper does not present a usual empirical study; it is rather

(a) a synthesis of findings of a series of related analyses, and (b) a first step in refocusing research attention and aiming to develop deeper understanding of the phenomenon of language switching.

## 4 Findings

In this section we present the findings of three interconnected analyses; we aim to answer the following questions concerning the language of communication:

- In what proportion were the target language (English) and the mother tongue (Czech) used?
- To what proportion were the lessons' activities aimed at reception and production of the target language?
- What are the typical situations in which the speakers switch from one language to another?

### 4.1 *Uttered words*

An analysis of the number of words uttered in the target language as opposed to the mother tongue will only tell us little about the way in which the two languages are mixed together, what roles they play and how the speakers switch between them. Nevertheless it can serve as the foundation for further analysis by providing introductory overall information about the prominence that the two languages bear.

An analysis of lesson transcripts showed that on average teachers uttered more Czech words than English words (only in 26 lessons out of the 79 on the lower-secondary level was this proportion reversed), while the students uttered more English words than Czech words (however, in 22 lower-secondary lessons this proportion was reversed). There were some teachers in the sample that tended to speak "English only" to the students, while other teachers spoke freely in the students' mother tongue. This did not seem to depend on whether the lesson was aimed at grammar or conversation topics. Instead, it seemed to be a characteristic of the particular teacher's approach or teaching style.

The teachers said ca 2500 words on average in one lesson (a bit more in the primary school lessons, a bit less in the lower-secondary school lessons) and

all the students said on average 750 words in one lesson (a bit less in the primary school lessons, a bit more in the lower-secondary school lessons).

Findings are summarised in table 1 and figure 1.

Table 1  
*A quantitative view on the lessons from the perspective of the language used (number of words)*

	primary school lessons (n = 10)				lower-secondary school lessons (n = 79)			
	mean	SD	max	min	mean	SD	max	min
teacher English	1004	292	1553	478	1163	799	3011	4
teacher Czech	1325	734	2457	0	1455	823	3238	91
teacher total	2328	620	3518	1158	2618	626	3977	951
students English	605	295	1287	285	408	212	1105	0
students Czech	283	232	714	42	282	175	725	25
students total	888	389	1548	454	690	275	1399	54
total	3216	820	4863	2026	3308	712	4693	1005

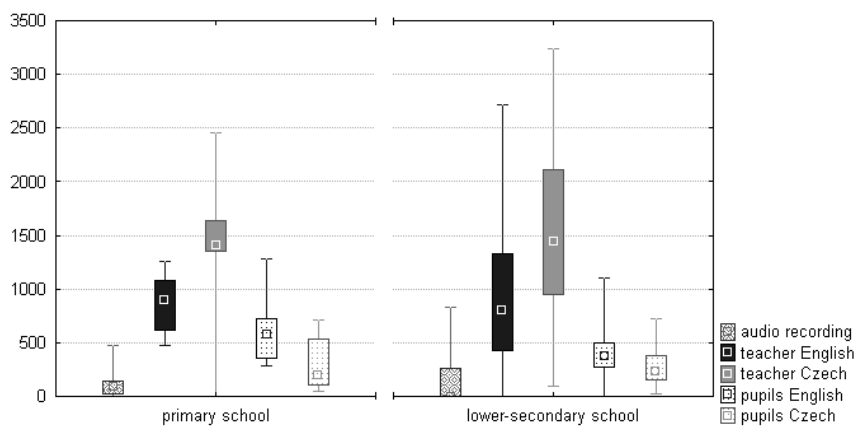


Figure 1. Comparing primary and lower-secondary school from the perspective of language (number of words).



Vast differences were observed between individual teachers. There was a lesson in the sample in which the teacher uttered more than 3,900 words, which equals the rate of 1.4 words per second. In a different lesson a teacher uttered 2,714 English words, which means more than one English word per second. Concerning the relationship of the target and mother tongues, there was a teacher in the sample who uttered on average more than 2,400 English words per lesson, while saying less than 200 Czech words. At the same time there was a teacher who uttered on average more than 2,150 Czech words per lesson while saying only 339 English words. Both of these teachers were in the lower-secondary-school sample.

#### 4.2 Talking time

Looking at the relationship between the target language and the mother tongue through the proportion of numbers of words uttered in the respective languages in the situations of public interaction may provide us with a limited picture only. Therefore an alternative operationalisation was used: "Talking time" is seen as the cumulative amount of time (measured in 10-second intervals) devoted to using one or another language (or their blend). The following categories were used for coding (table 2):

Table 2  
*Categories for the analysis of "talking time"*

1	Czech	Czech is spoken.
2	predominantly Czech	Czech is spoken but a few English words are used.
3	balanced	Czech and English are equally used.
4	predominantly English	English is spoken but a few Czech words are used.
5	English	English is spoken.
6	group work	Students are working in groups, English is expected.
7	silence/writing	No public interaction takes place.

The findings suggest that in the "average" lesson, for 40 per cent of the time English is spoken (only slightly contaminated with Czech), while for another 40 per cent of the time Czech is spoken (only slightly contaminated with English)<sup>3</sup>. All this takes place in the "whole-class" setting. Most of

<sup>3</sup> As well as in case of the analysis of "uttered words", there was approximately the same number of teachers in the sample who tended to speak English most of the time as of those who used primarily Czech.

the remaining lesson time is devoted to writing tasks and only 5 per cent of the lesson time is spent in group work setting (Figure 2). However, vast differences were observed between individual teachers. There were teachers in the sample who let Czech be heard for less than 7 per cent of the time of their lessons (teacher B, Figure 3), and on the other hand teachers who allowed Czech to take up as much as 75 per cent of the time in their lessons (teacher F, Figure 4).

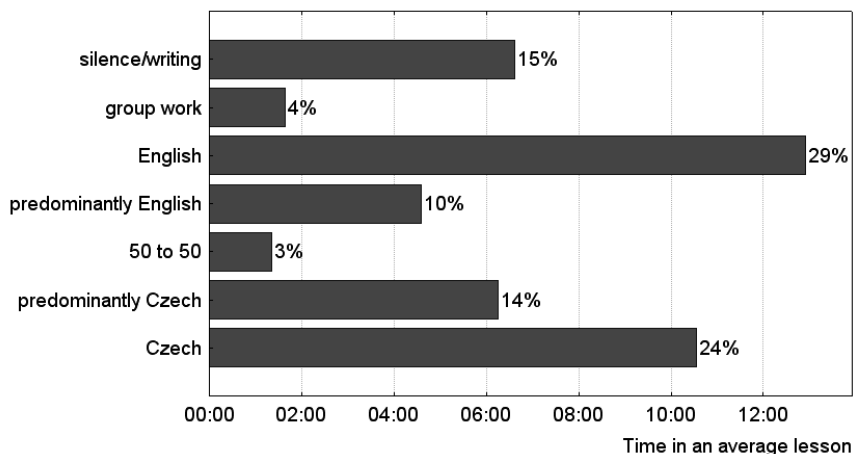


Figure 2. Talking time (in % of the lesson); average for the entire sample.

To provide a dynamic view on the lesson from the perspective of the languages used, a specific way of visualising data, the so-called *lesson signature* (Hiebert et al., 2003), can be used. Lesson signatures are the results of overlaying the data from the analysed lessons on a timeline. As an example of such visualisation, figures 5 and 6 show data combined from four lessons of two different teachers, one of which (teacher G, figure 5) succeeded in creating a more 'English' environment, while the other one (teacher H, figure 6) relied heavily on Czech, especially at the beginning and at the end of her lessons.

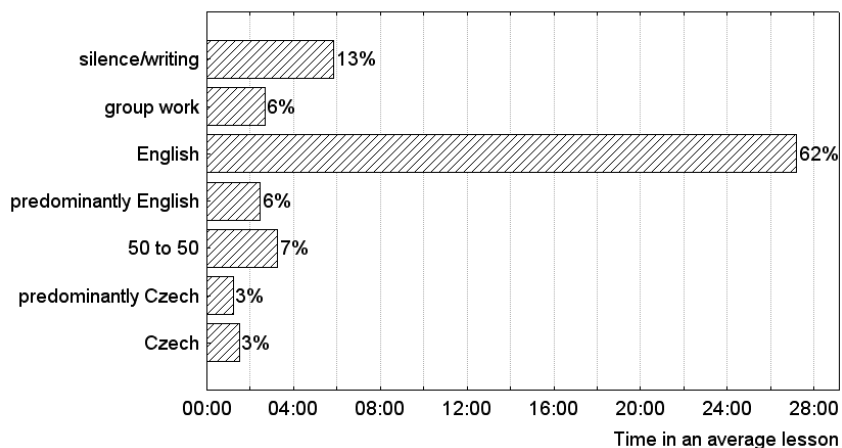


Figure 3. Talking time (in % of the lesson); teacher B.

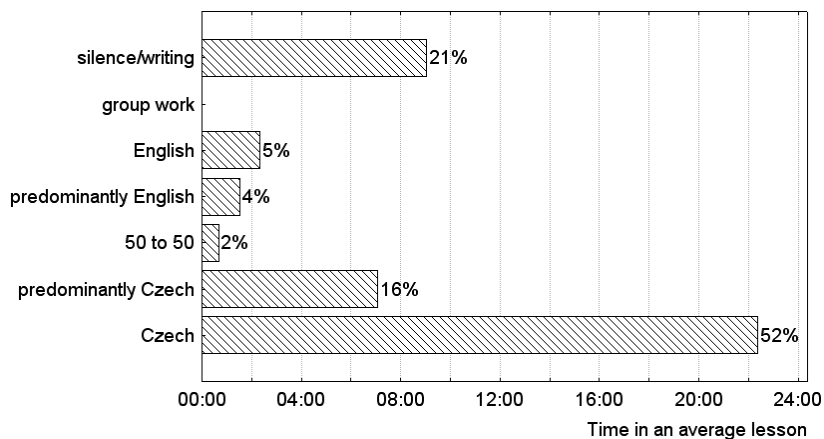


Figure 4. Talking time (in % of the lesson); teacher F.

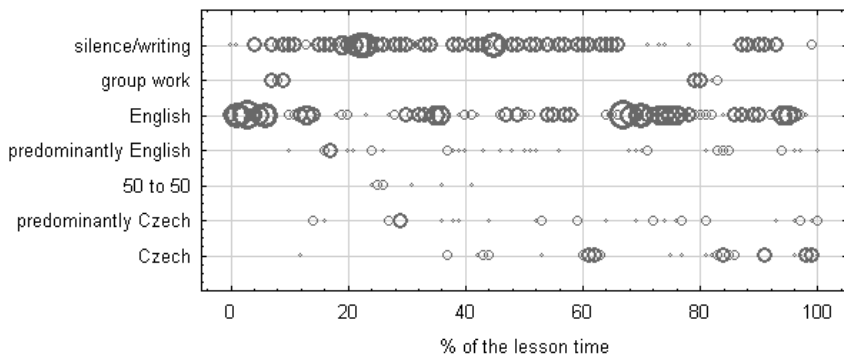


Figure 5. Lesson signature (4 lessons; teacher G).

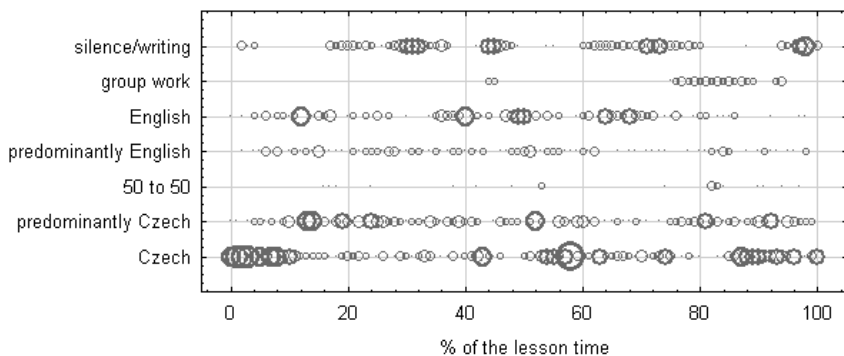


Figure 6. Lesson signature (4 lessons; teacher H).

### 4.3 Language skills and the mother tongue

In order to provide a different view on language mixing in the same sample of lessons, the authors took up a subject specific perspective. Using the concept of language skills, an analysis was carried out that focused on switching between languages with respect to the subject matter. Language skills can be characterised as modes of grasping the language and there are four of them

generally recognised: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Importantly for the purposes of this analysis, they include both receptive (listening and reading), and productive (speaking and writing) language activities. They are usually employed and developed in situations when English is used as the language of instruction. Such situations in which the subject matter was presented to the students in their native language were classified as *Czech as a language of instruction*.

Figure 7 presents a comparison between the lessons of teachers in lower-secondary classes. The lessons were mostly taught in English, but only a few teachers taught their lessons in English almost the entire time. The Czech language seems to be a part of English lessons in lower-secondary classes.

We combined the *listening* and *reading* categories into a category named *reception* and the *speaking* and *writing* categories into a category named *production* (Figure 8). The analysis showed that students in primary classes used both receptive and productive skills more in the lesson time than students in lower-secondary classes. On the contrary, Czech language as a language of instruction was used more in lower-secondary classes than in primary classes.

The findings further show that the primary-school students had somewhat more opportunities for language reception (63%) than lower-secondary-school students (59%). Even greater difference was found in opportunities for language production (43% for primary school, 35% for lower-secondary school). These differences can be traced back to the proportion in which the students' mother tongue was present in the lessons, i.e. the lessons in the lower-secondary school were more mother-tongue based in comparison with the lessons in the primary school (Figure 8).

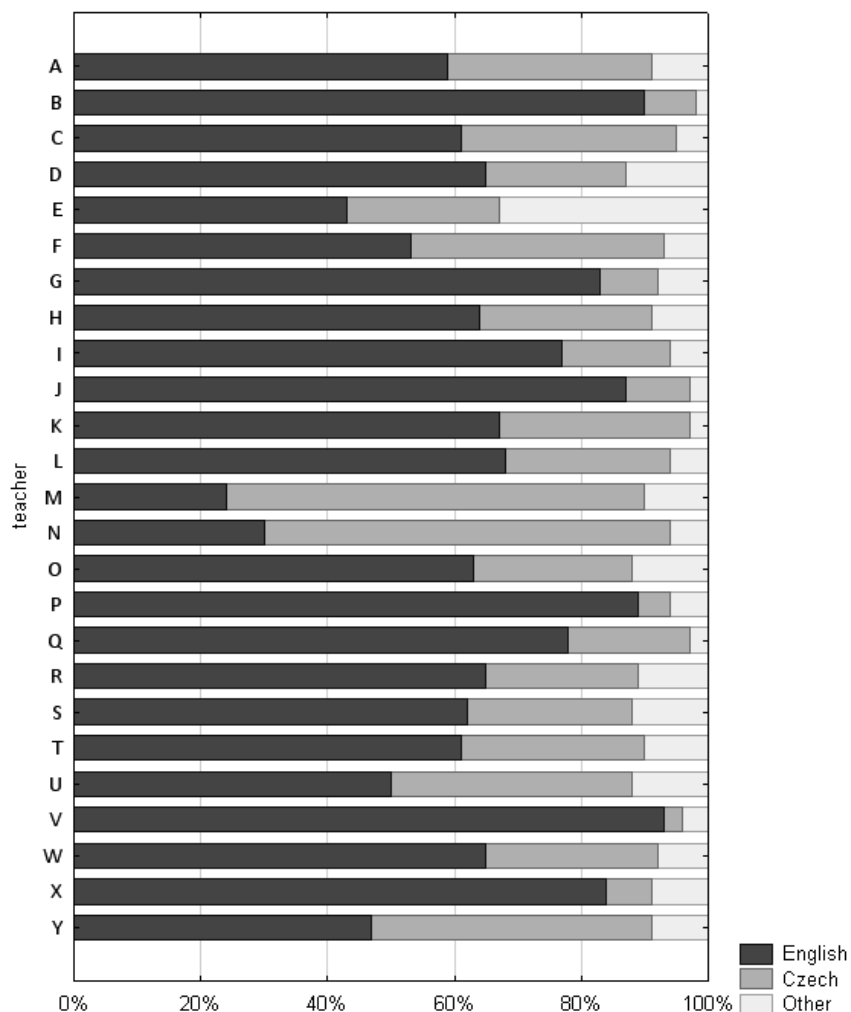
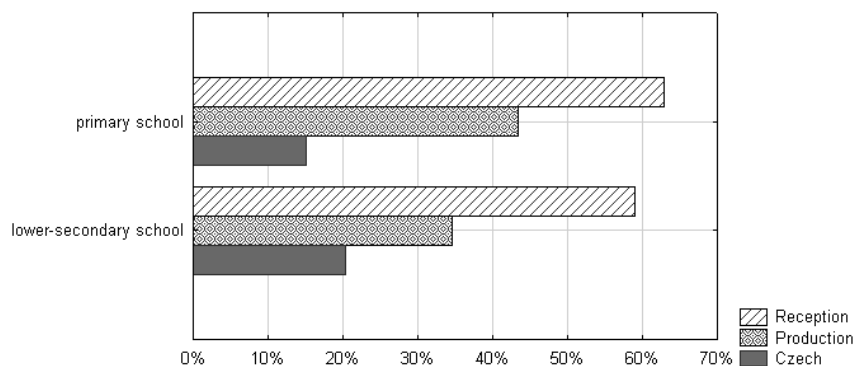
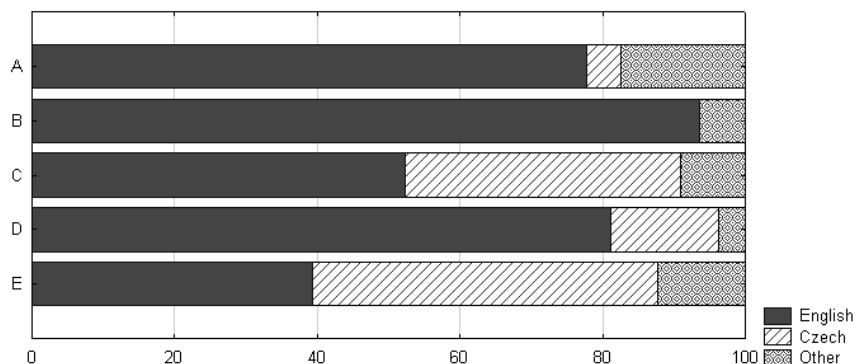


Figure 7. English and Czech in lower-secondary classes in dependence on different teachers.



*Figure 8.* Reception, production and Czech in primary and lower-secondary classes.

Figure 9 presents the differences between all five primary school teachers in the research. In teacher B's lessons English was used almost the entire time of the lessons, whereas teachers C and E used Czech at least in ca 50% of the lesson time. The comparison shows the differences in the use of the target language in the lessons of different teachers.



*Figure 9.* English and Czech in primary classes in different teachers.

#### 4.4 *Five ways of mixing languages*

In this final part of the paper, five insights into the transcripts of the analysed lessons are provided. Each one presents a somewhat (proto)typical situation of mixing English and Czech in the sense that similar situations were observed in different lessons taught by different teachers in the sample. However, rather than a result of a systematic analysis, these situations are to be understood as a starting point for one, and also as an example of how languages can be mixed in lessons of English as a foreign language.<sup>4</sup>

##### *Explaining grammar in English (lesson Aj\_B3)*

In this situation, the teacher employs the “all English” approach. Only rarely does she insert a Czech word in order to clarify her meaning.

T: We can count. Co můžeme? [What can we do?] We can count.

S: Počítat. [Count.]

T: Yes, what is it “countable”?

S: Počítat. [To count.]

T: What is it “uncountable”? Have a look at this. How much sugar can you see? How much sugar? How much? Little. Maybe little. How much rice can you see? Can you count it? It is not possible. And what about flour? How much flour can you see? How much? Little, a little. Maybe. A little. What is it? It is a packet of flour. Yes. It is a packet of rice. You know for example water. We have to cover it. Musíme to do něčeho balit. [We must contain it in something.] Hm. Kam bychom zabalili [How would you contain it?] – look outside. Turn your body. And look. Turn your body. Look at it. A bottle of water. Can you recognise it? Yes, here. A bottle of water. We can't count. Nemůžeme počítat. [We cannot count it.] We can't count how many water. We have to answer how much water. Yes. How much. Only bottles. Ok. One bottle of water. Ok. Give it to me. Give it to me. And now. How many bottles can you see?

S: Two.

T: Two bottles. For example. Yes. Ok. Is it clear a little bit?

##### *Explaining grammar in Czech (lesson Aj\_F4)*

In this situation, a grammatical phenomenon (negation in the past simple) is commented on exclusively in Czech (with a written example on the blackboard in English).

<sup>4</sup> Square brackets provide authors' translations of Czech utterances and authors' comments on the character of interactions.



(The teacher writes on the board.)

T: Včera jsem si udělala úkol. [Yesterday, I did my homework.] To did je tady jako? [“Did” serves as...]

S: Významové sloveso. [Full verb.]

T: Významové. A znamená? [Yes, and what does it mean?]

S: Dělat. [To do.]

[The teacher writes “Yesterday, I did not do my homework.” in English on the blackboard.]

T: Tak tady toto první je co? [And this first one here is what?]

S: Hm, pomocné, pomocné asi. [Auxiliary verb, I guess.]

T: Pomocné pro zápor v minulosti a tady toto je co? [Auxiliary verb to express negation in the past; and what is this?]

S: Významové. [Full verb.]

T: Významové dělat. [Full verb meaning “to do”] To by vám bez toho nedávalo smysl, kdybyste dali jenom didn’t, tak to nedá smysl ta věta, tam to musí být dvakrát. [Without the auxiliary verb the sentence would not make sense. Both “DOs” must be there.]

S: Aha. [I see.]

### *Mixed instruction (lesson Aj\_U3)*

In this situation, the teacher switches between the target language and the mother tongue back and forth on sentence boarders as well as within sentences. Classroom routine without real content is carried out in English and important instructions are given in Czech.

T: Ale quiet, please. Exercise book. Sešit. [Exercise book.] Write the date. Today is the eleventh of May. And we will write some questions. Napíšem si děcka jenom otázky. Nebudem si tam vypisovat celé věty. To si sami vytvoříme v hlavě, ty odpovědi. To už zvládneme. Vy mně budete radit, ano, ty otázky. [We will write the questions only. Don’t write the whole sentences. We will do this orally. You will manage. You will tell me the questions.] Takže [So] number one.

### *Immediate translation (lesson Aj\_D3)*

The following situation presents a common phenomenon in Czech classes of English: an immediate translation. In these situations, everything is said in both languages.

(A “True or false” task.)

T: The longest recorded flight for a chicken is thirteen minutes. Do you think it is true? Who thinks it is true? Who thinks it isn’t true? Není to pravda. [It is not true.]

S: Jo! [Yes.]

T: Kolik byste si tipli, že uletí slepice? [For how long would you say a chicken can fly.]

S: Dvanáct, dvacet osm. [Twelve, twenty eight...]

T: Na minuty, na vteřiny. Tipněte si. [Minutes and seconds. Just guess.]

S: Dvacet osm, dvacet vteřin. [Students guessing]

T: Thirteen seconds. Chicken flying record is thirteen seconds. No minutes. The third sentence.

S: Hm, takže [so], it's possible to lead a cow downstairs but not upstairs. Takže je možné vodit krávu jakože dolů, ale ne nahoru. [translates clumsily]

T: Po schodech. Dolů po schodech, ale už ji nevyvedete nahoru. [offers a better translation] Is it true? Do you think it is true?

S: Jo, je to pravda. [Yes, I think it is true.]

T: Jo? Takže myslíte si, že ji můžete svést dolů po schodech, ale nahoru ji nevyvedete, jo? [So you think you can lead a cow down the stairs but not up the stairs?]

T: Who thinks it is true? Who thinks it isn't true? Tak znovu. [Again.] Who thinks it is true?

S: Asi jo. [I guess so.]

T: Who thinks it isn't true? No, it isn't true.

### *Using the Czech vocative (lesson Aj\_B3)*

Using a Czech vocative (a “case no. 5”, a special form of substantives by means of which one is addressed) in otherwise “all English” utterances is a very common phenomenon and has been observed even in lessons of expert teachers. Further research is needed to unveil the source and/or justification of this phenomenon.

T: Listen to them. Nikolko. Have a look at them. Dalibore. Have a look at them.

## **5 Discussion**

The findings presented in this paper all concentrate on the issue of using mother tongue in classrooms of English as a foreign language. Even though the same sample of video recordings was used in all of these analyses, the findings concerning the amount of mother tongue used in the lessons seem to differ from one analysis to another. This seeming contradiction is due to the fact that different operationalisations of ‘using the mother tongue’ were used in different analyses.

The findings are consistent with the findings of other researchers. The observation that the mother tongue plays an integral part in foreign language teaching – despite what communicative methodology postulates as desirable – has been made by many (for partial overview see Littlewood & Yu, 2011). The fact that the proportion between the target language and the mother tongue used by foreign language teachers is very much dependant on the individual teacher is reminded by the same authors who asked 50 post-secondary students of English from Hong Kong and Mainland China to recall how much mother tongue their teachers in lower-secondary school lessons had used. The answers varied to a great degree; some students recalled instruction that had been based in the target language almost exclusively (ca 30 per cent of the sample), while others remembered instruction that was heavily mother-tongue-based (28 per cent of the students recalled instruction with over 75 per cent of the lesson time being carried out in the mother tongue; Littlewood & Yu, 2011, pp. 67–68).

A qualitative look into the corpus of lesson transcripts generated a number of “typical situations” in which the speaker mixed the target language and the mother tongue of the students. Among these typical situations there were explaining grammar (in Czech and in English), instances of mixed instruction and instances of immediate translation. All these types of situations, along with the specific use of the Czech vocative within “all English” utterances, can be seen as characteristic of the way the two languages were mixed in the analysed English classrooms.

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## **Jazyk komunikace ve výuce anglického jazyka v České republice: míšení jazyků**

**Abstrakt:** Studie se zabývá komunikací ve školní třídě. Konkrétně je zaměřena na používání angličtiny jako cílového jazyka a češtiny jako mateřského jazyka ve výuce angličtiny na základních školách v České republice. Představuje výsledky analýzy 89 vyučovacích hodin anglického jazyka zaměřené na proporci mezi používáním angličtiny a češtiny učiteli a žáky a také na specifické situace, ve kterých jsou oba jazyky míšeny. Analýzy ukázaly, že učitelé ve vyučování vyřkli více českých slov než anglických, zatímco žáci naopak vyřkli více anglických slov než českých. Analýzy využívající časové kódování ukázaly, že angličtina a čeština se ve výuce objevují vyváženě. Alternativní perspektivou na vztah cílového a mateřského jazyka je pohled skrze příležitosti k procvičování jednotlivých jazykových dovedností, jež učitelé ve výuce vytvářejí. V souladu s jinými realizovanými výzkumy byly mezi jednotlivými zkoumanými učiteli pozorovány podstatné rozdíly v tom, do jaké míry využívají ve výuce mateřský jazyk žáků. V závěru studie je představeno pět typických situací, ve kterých ve výuce dochází k míšení jazyků.

**Klíčová slova:** míšení jazyků, přepínání kódu, výuka cizích jazyků, výuka angličtiny, interakce ve třídě, komunikace ve třídě.